



SEWING PROJECTS

CONSUMERS' GUIDE

MAY 1, 1939



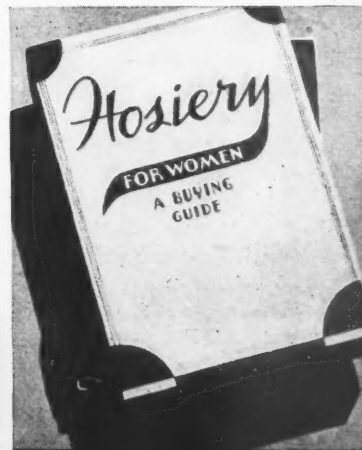
VITAMINS



TRADE BARRIERS



STANDARD SIZES



BOOKSHELF

A Publication of the
Agricultural Adjustment Administration
Consumers' Counsel Division
D. E. MONTGOMERY, Consumers' Counsel

Issued Semi-monthly
(Monthly during June, July, August, and
September)

Address all inquiries to the Editor,
Consumers' Guide, U. S. Dept. of Agriculture
Washington, D. C.

MARY TAYLOR, Editor



WHEN two consumers talk over their common consumer problems a little bit of history is made. When 50 do it, that makes a whole chapter in history. When 600 gather from all over the country to swap ideas on what's wrong and what's to be done about it, that's practically building a monumental milestone.

Two events of special interest to consumers took place last month; one, a series of consultations with the Secretary of Agriculture in Washington; the other a gathering at the Institute for Consumer Education at Stephens College, Columbia, Mo. Both made history.

To Washington came 50 women, invited by the Secretary of Agriculture to consult with the Secretary about consumer problems related to the administration of the agricultural adjustment program and how that program may help to assure abundance for consumers. Half of the 50 women live on farms or are intimately acquainted with the problems of farm families; half came from cities or are working with groups of city families. They met with the Secretary and his officials. They asked and answered questions on problems troubling both city and rural consumers on farm products. The talk was lively, cogent, challenging. They defined and redefined the problems and possible solutions. So stimulating was the discussion, that *Consumers' Guide* is going to report it further in a later issue.

Men and women—600 strong—gathered at the Columbia, Mo., conference on consumer education. They came from 31 States. They were teachers and directors of education, top-flight business executives, representatives of magazines and publishing houses, executives of great organizations of women, of consumer organizations, cooperators, home economists, government special-

ists, and directors of great educational foundations. Never before had there been such a gathering of the clan of people who are deeply concerned with the kind of thinking which people, young and old, are doing today about the Nation's greatest problem—how to get an abundant living for everyone—and still keep a maximum amount of economic freedom for everyone.

From studying traditional masters of economic thought, such as Adam Smith, to studying tin cans is a far leap. Students and leaders in consumer education have made that leap. From thinking in terms of "my slice" in the national income pie, to thinking in terms of a larger national income pie, is a far leap. These students and leaders in consumer education have made that leap. From looking upon government as an instrument to protect "my interests," to looking upon government to promote "our interests," is another far leap. These students and leaders of consumer education have made that leap.

Three days the conference proceeded. It probed into this question and that. What kind of information do consumers want in advertising, on labels, from sales clerks? What kind of information do consumers want from books, from teachers, from government? What kind of information do consumers want in order to get the most for their money, in order to budget wisely, in order to encourage producers and distributors who are making greater abundance possible? What kind of information do consumers want so that they can distinguish between those producers and distributors who are serving limited interests and those who are serving the broader interests of all consumers? Questions galore were tossed up. Few answers came, because answers to such questions as these are difficult.

From the great women's organizations came the plea that special interests in our Nation clearly identify themselves to consumers. From business came the plea that consumers be forthright in expressing the things they want from industry and trade and collaborate with business in attaining these necessities. From teachers came the plea that less commercial, and more disinterested, study materials be made available to the schools. From others came the plea that the need of low-income consumers for educational materials directed to their special problems be considered. From researchers in consumer products came the plea for better integration of this work.

From all sides these conferees expressed their conviction that consumer action must go along side by side with consumer education. One business executive contributed the

suggestion that only as consumers organize into a pressure group can they secure what they want. The director of an important settlement house in New York described a joint campaign of farmers and consumers for more milk consumption which was climaxed by a dramatic march on a State government office in which hundreds of mothers from the slum areas of the city arrived with their babies in gocats, and farmers—leading a cow—joined them in asking the government for action on their petition. Others warned students and teachers against becoming textbound, and urged that the teaching of consumer education should start in the market place and with the practical day-to-day problem of making dollars buy their most.

Consumers who would like to have copies of the speeches made at this conference should address their requests to the Institute of Consumer Education, Stephens College, Columbia, Mo.

A NATIONAL SURVEY of consumer education is being conducted by the Consumers' Counsel Division in cooperation with the U. S. Office of Education. This survey will cover four main areas of consumer education activities: (a) Elementary schools; (b) secondary schools; (c) colleges and universities; (d) adult groups. Some attention will also be given to consumer education carried on in the home. In the elementary school division an analysis will be made of the number of elementary school courses of study. Information on consumer education in secondary schools and in colleges and universities is being gathered by means of questionnaires.

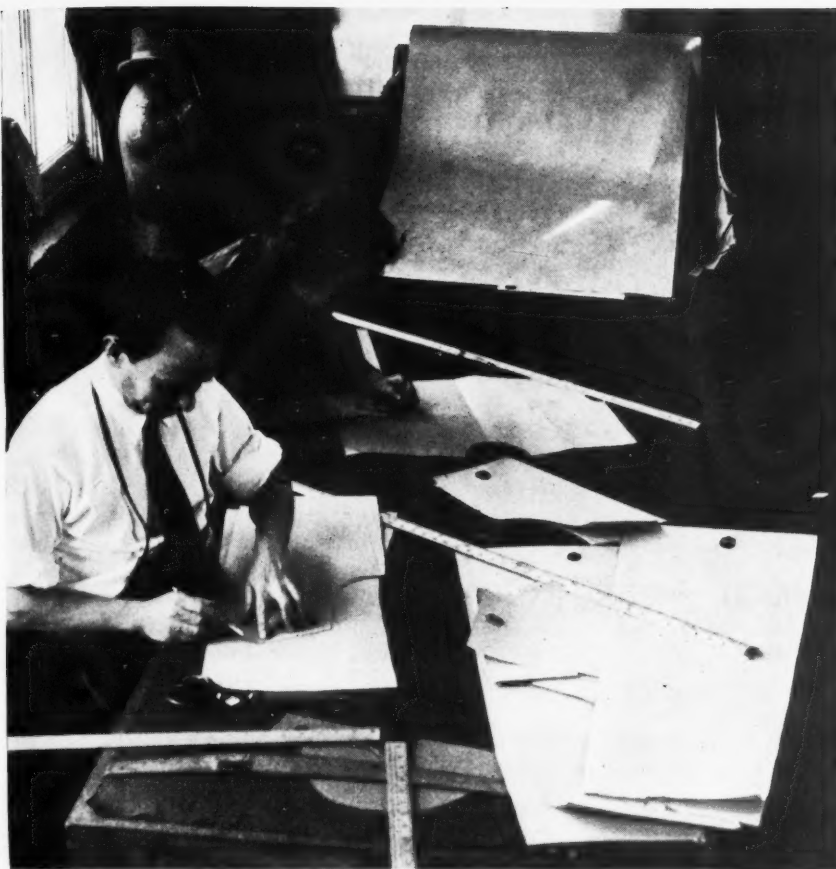
Teachers of consumer education classes who have not already sent information about their work to the Consumers' Counsel Division are invited to contribute data regarding their consumer education courses. The Division also desires to receive copies of course outlines and pamphlet publications developed for use in consumer education classes. Mail in your material to the Consumers' Counsel Division, AAA, Washington, D. C.

●
"Man needs both bread and freedom; it is a calamity when he must barter one for the other, and the result may be the breakdown of civilization."

HENRY A. WALLACE,
Secretary of Agriculture.

●
TO WPA go our thanks for photographs which they have generously furnished us for the main illustration on this cover and for our articles on "Haberdashers to the Needy," and "Vitamin Fancies and Facts."

Ha
WP
tripl
the r
T
tri
ge
"Tailors
King."
If mo
cratic co
itself "T
ers to th
challenge
achievem
children
worked,
* For the
see "One S
issue of C
in Better N



Haberdashers to the Needy

*WPA sewing projects provide another kind of triple-action relief—clothes for the needy, jobs for the unemployed, and outlets for farm surpluses**

TAILORS and haberdashers in countries where there are kings sometimes get the right to designate themselves "Tailors and haberdashers to H. M. the King."

If monarchic precedents held in democratic countries, WPA might be styling itself "Tailors, haberdashers and dressmakers to the needy." Certainly it has few to challenge its right to such distinction. On achievement in numbers of men, women and children clothed, of garments made and reworked, on employment given to unskilled

but needy workers—on all these counts, sewing projects of WPA have rung up many claims to that title.

They have done more. Producers of fibers, unable to find markets that will pay a decent price for all they raise, have found this great enterprise in relief an outlet for some of their wares. Like school lunch programs which help food producers, these sewing projects have brought triple-action benefits to farmers, workers, and consumers.

Just as the school lunch program nourishes children with foods purchased from surplus-harassed farmers, the sewing projects clothe the unemployed with surplus cotton purchased from cotton producers. Besides the direct purchases of cotton fabrics on the open

market (which give a boost to business and farmers), the sewing projects got more than 6½ million pounds of raw cotton from the Federal Surplus Commodities Corporation in 1938. This cotton was made into household articles on the sewing projects. All of this was paid for under a provision which allots 30 percent of the Federal tariff receipts to the Federal Surplus Commodities Corporation so it can "encourage the domestic consumption of farm products."

The Agricultural Adjustment Administration also had a hand in clothing consumers with the aid of the sewing projects and the FSCC. In 1938 it contributed 32 thousand cattle hides, left over from the drought relief program in 1934, which were made up chiefly into sturdy useful leather coats.

WPA BEGAN with millions of men, women, and children who were almost, if not literally, naked, and clothed them. Children have been supplied dresses and suits so they can go to schools. Men have been outfitted so they could look for jobs and go to work when they found jobs. Women have been clothed so they could emerge from their homes and participate in the life of their neighborhoods. Big brothers and sisters have been outfitted so they could go to work or to school. Newly born infants found WPA layettes awaiting them.

Up to October 1, 1937, the date the last complete inventory of WPA was made, the WPA sewing projects had made 122 million articles for free distribution by public agencies to the destitute or to the handicapped in tax-supported institutions.

Men urgently in need of clothing received 17 million garments; 25 million garments were distributed to needy women; 16 million garments went to boys; 21 million articles of apparel went to girls; and 16 million baby garments were made for beginners. Besides these garments, sewing projects made hospital supplies, sheets, pillowcases, towels, surgical dressings, blankets, comforts. Even toys have been fashioned from sewing scraps to beguile the children of impoverished families.



MAY 1, 1939

*For the story of Government aid for the ill-fed, see "One Square Meal a Day" in January 30, 1939, issue of Consumers' Guide, and "An Experiment in Better Nutrition" in April 15, 1939, issue.

Figures that mount to the millions sound staggering to people who buy one coat every seven years, 2 or 3 layettes in a lifetime. Spread out over all the ill-clothed who have no money to buy they shrink to little.

The clothing made on WPA sewing projects has never approached the needs of families on relief. WPA has never made enough clothing to supply adequately just those families on relief that had no way of obtaining any clothing at all. Despite the 95 million garments produced, there are still families, men, women and children, who need clothes, but have no way to buy them, who can't get them.

This isn't the fault of the WPA, nor the fault of any one person. WPA was designed to give work to the unemployed. It was strictly enjoined to undertake no project which would compete with private industry or replace a regular activity of government. Whatever has been done on WPA had to be done with labor available on WPA rolls. By and large the work has had to be carried on in whatever vacant room the cities and States designated for WPA. Whatever has been made has been made with the materials that cities and States supplied.

That is the framework of the WPA and the WPA sewing projects. Within this framework approximately 180 thousand women, the unemployed wage earners in 180 thousand families, have been put to work in almost every county of the United States making clothing and other household articles for families on relief and for public institutions. Inside these rigidly determined limits the WPA has sought to meet as best it could the most urgent clothing needs of 10 or 12 million unemployed.

Manufacturing clothing is a skilled vocation. In this day of clothing factories not every woman knows how to sew. Of the women who can sew in an emergency at home, there are few who can actually make a garment. Hardly any untrained woman is able to perform the highly trained, highly skilled job of cutting clothes.

FIRST OF ALL, WPA sewing projects have taken untrained, unskilled women and taught them the craft of clothes making. Some women have even learned the very technical skill of cutting clothes.

Sitting in a house with a sewing basket in your lap is very different from operating in

a room with 3 or 4 hundred other women and turning out clothes at factory pace. It takes factory organization to produce large quantities of clothes.

Clothing "factories," then, have been organized. Sometimes these are set up in an abandoned church, or in the basement of a school or an empty room in the city hall. Machines have been assembled from whatever source the city or State could find. Cutters have been trained—trained so well, in fact, that some of them graduated from the WPA to jobs in clothing factories. Machine operators have been trained, and again many of the women trained on WPA sewing projects have found jobs in the clothing industry.

Clothes, they say, make the man, the woman, or the child. Realizing that badly made clothes that stamp their wearers as welfare recipients would not build the morale of people already hard put keeping up their spirits, WPA sewing projects have placed particular emphasis on making good clothes from attractive patterns. They have been especially careful that all the children in relief families do not turn up in school wearing identical garments. To make sure that clothes should not be uniforms, in some

CLOTHES for the seven ages of man come out of WPA sewing projects. Excess cotton finds a use in the layette which greeted this youngest lady (shown here) when she was born. The grown-up young lady has an overcoat which is a joint project of the sewing projects and the Civilian Conservation Corps. Discarded CCC clothing was cleaned, reworked, and then sewn up into this WPA creation. More cotton went to provide overalls for the wage earner and play clothes for his youthful companion.



States instructions have been given that no pattern is to be made up more than once in the same color or cloth.

But this precaution is the easiest of the many sewing room rules to put into effect. To insure that clothes are of high quality, State WPA consultants have got advice from the garment industry and on the basis of the best industrial practices have compiled manuals for the guidance of the supervisors and the workers on sewing projects. The sewing manual compiled and published by the Division of Women's and Professional Projects of the North Carolina WPA contains 75 pages of specific instructions on the manufacture of clothing.

Equipment that a sewing project should have is itemized. The height of the chairs for women workers is specified. The width of the cutting table is indicated. A table in this manual indicates what type of needle and thread should be used with each kind of cloth and the number of stitches per inch that should be made with each kind of thread.

From the National Bureau of Standards measurements for all standard sizes were obtained and these are tabulated in the sewing guide so that the wearers of WPA garments can be as well fitted (if not better, since not even all commercially produced garments fit their wearers) as the wearer of a garment out of the local department store. To protect against mistakes made in the size measurements, the manner of taking measurements is carefully detailed. To measure the bust, for example, the guide states, "Stretch the tape measure around the fullest part of the bust. It should be an inch higher in the back than the front." Another section deals with pattern alterations and instructions are given here to enable the workers to make the modifications in patterns that special circumstances may require. (See page 11 for the story on the Bureau of Home Economics work to standardize sizes for children's clothing.)

Right down the list of garments the manufacturing procedure to be followed in making each type of clothing is outlined. Illustrations accompany the text so there can be no misunderstanding. After working on sewing projects, as the result of the kind of instructions given, the women not only can put a dress together, but they understand the reason for each instruction.

WPA sewing project women, when they go buying clothes for their families in the future, will know what to look for in clothes, they will know differences between cloths, will be able to recognize good workmanship, and will know what to look for in deciding whether a garment will serve its purpose well or badly.

[Concluded on page 13]

A Message to Consumers

BY R. M. EVANS
Administrator, A. A. A.



OCCASIONALLY the mistaken argument is made that the farmer and consumer have fundamentally conflicting interests. "The farmer," it is sometimes said, "wants a high price, and the consumer wants a low price—in fact, the consumer would like to get for nothing the food which the farmer produces."

That's a mighty short-range view. Farmers who think, and consumers who think, know better. Excessively high prices are bad for sellers. Excessively low prices are bad for buyers. That's the sound economics of it. That's the actual experience of farmers and consumers in America.

For instance, in 1932 a farmer neighbor of mine gave away a carload of cattle to the people in a nearby town. He had tried selling. He had shipped a carload of steers to market, and the return had been so small he decided it was more sensible to give away the beef outright and be done with it.

So my farmer neighbor told the folks to come and help themselves. Butchers cooperated, and people just came and got the meat. By selling the hides he got more for this carload than from the first.

That free food was expensive for the people of the town. My farmer neighbor got no money to buy the goods the production of which means jobs for the people in the towns and cities. He could not exchange his goods for the goods produced by city workers. All over the country the same situation prevailed. Whether it was cattle or hogs, cotton or fruit or vegetables, farmers throughout the land were literally giving away the sweat of their brows and the fertility of their soil. Farms were foreclosed, farm families lost their homes, banks closed their doors, surpluses piled up, joblessness increased, breadlines got longer.

In the depression years we had surplus food and foreclosures, surplus bankruptcies and unemployment, surplus hunger and mis-

ery. Scarcity of everything that everybody wanted.

Farmers made up their minds that this should never happen again. Congress provided the authority. Farmers entered upon a program to balance America's farm abundance, protect farm income, conserve the soil, and make sure that consumers should obtain an adequate and steady supply of foods and fiber at fair prices. And speaking of consumers—today as a result of that farm program nearly six million farm family consumers of city products are back into the market for the purchase of city products.

Progressive minded farmers are interested in the efforts of consumers to test the quality of goods and services offered for sale. Such farmers are interested in the efforts of consumers to cut unreasonable costs. Farmers do such testing, make such intelligent efforts, in their own capacity as consumers.

Equally, consumers who are of alert minds are interested in the efforts of farmers to stabilize agricultural production. Such consumers are interested in the efforts of farmers to insure national prosperity by soundly adjusting production to consumption, by eliminating gluts and surpluses. For city consumers have themselves built up, in their capacity as producers, whether they are business, professional, or labor folk, organizations which endeavor to stabilize their activities even as the farmer is now stabilizing his.

This interest of farmers in consumers' efforts, and of consumers in farmers' efforts, is demonstrated increasingly. For we are all Americans, and we all strive to make the American dream of opportunity and security for the common man come true. Time was when every man could go his own way. Today in our complex society the achievement of the American dream depends upon the understanding of and cooperation with groups other than our own.



"FEELING SLUGGISH? Appetite bad? Losing weight? Complexion below par? In short, is there anything wrong with you? If there is, you need vitamins. You need them for breakfast, lunch, supper, and don't forget the good-night snack. You need Vitamins A, B, C, D, E, F, G, H—all the way down to Z—and you need them concentrated, a capital dose, something you can gulp down with a glass of water, or a pill to melt on your tongue. If you don't get them, beware. Quick, now . . . look for the package wrapped in cellophane. Take your vitamins three times a day, and you'll never have another doctor's bill. This is the twentieth century miracle—the fountain of youth, yours for the asking at your drug or grocery store counter."

Sounds like the modern version of the street corner medicine man who ballyhooed snake oil as the sure cure for everything, you say? Exhortations like these greet modern consumers at almost every corner, over the air, on paper, in packages. You are told you can get your vitamins in de luxe style or just plain. Once you have them, you are assured, your troubles are over. And you don't have to go far to get them. You can buy vitamin milk, vitamin rich soap ("soaks the vitamin in through the skin"), vitamin candy bars, vitamin tooth paste, and vitamin rich breakfast cereals. The world is waiting for the wizard who invents a vitamin hat!

The business in vitamins runs up to \$100,000,000 a year, so consumers are to be pardoned for being impressed, and even for asking: Do I really need all these vitamins, or is this just a fad, like weight-reducing? The consumer does well to ask.

Even scientists in the laboratory have hardly laid the cornerstone of vitamin research. A good start has been made on tracking down vitamins, identifying them, busting them up into their own little family trees, but scientists will tell you they are only starting to learn the mysteries of these food



VITAMINS

Vitamin Fancies and Facts

Scientists, cautioning consumers against believing everything claimed for vitamin products, say we are just at the beginning of vitamin wisdom

nutrients. They know something of the best sources of the vitamins they are already acquainted with. They will inform you with some assurance of things likely to happen to you if you run shy on several vitamins. Only a little progress has been made in setting up requirements of the human body for each of the known vitamins. Some work has been done in developing methods of preparing foods with a minimum loss of vitamins. And, finally, the last few years have seen some progress in the preparation of what—for want of a better name—have been called "concentrated vitamins," in the form of capsules, pills, and fish oils (see *Consumers' Guide*, Vol. IV, No. 23).

Here the awed consumer inquires: "Do I need these concentrated vitamins?" There's no rule of thumb that answers that question.

Consumers should remember two things when they sit down to figure out the meaning of any type of vitamin ballyhoo.

First, the average person—unless his doctor tells him differently—can get all the vitamins he needs from a balanced diet of carefully selected foods, properly prepared, and served 3 times a day.

And, second, so far as scientists know now the only people who really need vitamin concentrates are babies and young children, expectant and nursing mothers, persons recuperating from sickness, and those following doctor's orders. If you think you need vitamins in a special form, go to your family physician. Chances are he can fix up your diet to give you an ample supply of vitamins. If he can't, he will give you a druggist's prescription, and you will take your "concentrates" in full knowledge that you are not acting on a hunch that can cause deep inroads in your personal budget.

Defining a vitamin would be a neat little problem to pose on any of the radio quiz programs. You can't be too specific about what they actually are without considering each one separately. Scientists in the Bureau of Home Economics, United States Department of Agriculture, describe them as "distinct chemical substances, each having its own special function to perform in the body." When scientists are as cautious as that, it's a wise consumer who pauses before believing everything said for these substances. Below is a digest designed to clear up the problem for consumers so far as present-day knowledge and research makes this possible.

VITAMIN A: Stimulates growth and aids general well-being. Without it, you may have defective teeth and bad bone formation, low resistance to infection, and arrested growth; loss of reproductive power can result from its absence in the diet. A shortage of the vitamin also results in inability to see well in a dim light. This is called nutritional night blindness, and should not be confused with impaired vision from other causes.

Vitamin A is found in eggs, butter, cheese, whole milk, cream, and fish-liver oils. Leafy greens, green and yellow vegetables provide "pro-Vitamin A," which is changed to the vitamin itself during digestion. The deeper the green or yellow color of the vegetables, the more Vitamin A you will get from them.

Since very little of this vitamin is destroyed in cooking, and practically none dissolved in cooking water, no special kitchen rules have to be followed for retaining it when preparing foods for the dinner table.

BABIES and children need ample supplies of Vitamin D (the "sunshine vitamin") for strong teeth and bones. Sunshine and play in the out-of-doors is the best way of insuring that the body gets full advantage of the vitamins contained in foods.

Other vitamin products may also meet the standard, but mothers not familiar with vitamin units should consult their family physician if they want to be sure their children get an adequate supply.

Getting plenty of sunshine is another way of building up a supply of Vitamin D—often called the "sunshine vitamin." The human skin contains "pro-Vitamin D" which turns to Vitamin D under direct exposure to the sun for short periods every day. Many foods—such as milk—today carry on their labels the statement "irradiated with Vitamin D." Unless you are sure that the amount of Vitamin D provided in the irradiated food consumed by the child covers his daily requirements, it is wiser and cheaper to get the vitamin from fish-oils than to rely on these sources.

The best of vitamin scientists still say you can't buy sunshine in soap or face creams.

Vitamin D is not affected by ordinary cooking, and doesn't dissolve in water.

VITAMIN E: This vitamin is essential for reproduction. The germ of the wheat grain is an excellent source, as are vegetable oils and green vegetables.

The vitamin is not easily destroyed by heat.

VITAMIN G (also known as riboflavin): Work on this vitamin is still in the experimental stages, but research on animals shows that a deficiency of riboflavin results in retarded growth, loss of hair, and nutritional cataract. In human beings scientists now know that a shortage of the vitamin results in sores on the lips, and reddening and scaling of the skin about the mouth, nose, and ears.

Excellent sources of this vitamin are liver, kidney, heart, lean meats, eggs, cheese, milk (skim, whole, condensed, evaporated), turnip tops, beet tops, kale, mustard greens, and various types of seeds such as wheat germ, rice polishings, peanuts, and soybeans.

Riboflavin is not affected by cooking, but is easily destroyed if soda or other alkaline substances are present. It dissolves readily in cooking water. The rule: Serve the cooking water or dissolved juices with the food.

PELLAGRA-PREVENTING VITAMIN (nicotinic acid): One of the newer discoveries in vitamins; it made its debut without the formality

[Continued on page 15]



VITAMIN B (also called thiamin and aneurin): This one helps appetite. Without it, you tend to lose your appetite, become listless, have a sluggish digestive system, and nervous irritability. An absolute lack of the vitamin results in beriberi. An abundance of thiamin is essential for expectant and nursing mothers.

Richest sources are whole seeds (whole grain cereals, especially the germ portion), and legumes, including peanuts and soybeans. Green peas, and green lima beans, prepared properly, are well supplied with the vitamin, as are pork, chicken, kidney, liver.

Vitamin B soaks out into cooking water, is easily destroyed by heat, and the addition of baking soda to the cooking water greatly reduces the amount of Vitamin B. Follow this rule: Cook vegetables as short a time as possible, in the smallest amount of water, and use the cooking liquid. Don't add soda to the cooking water.

Roasting, broiling or stewing meat will cut its Vitamin B content almost in half.

VITAMIN C (also called ascorbic acid and cevitamic acid): The body does not store Vitamin C, as it does the other vitamins. Therefore, a daily supply is necessary. Serious deficiency of this vitamin results in bleeding gums, loose teeth, sore joints, loss of appetite with loss of weight, and fatigue. Scurvy follows on the heels of any prolonged shortage of the vitamin in the daily diet.

Citrus fruits and their juices—oranges, grapefruit, lemons, limes, tangerines—all abound in Vitamin C. Tomatoes and tomato juice are another major source for it. Various types of berries, cantaloups, any type of leafy and green vegetables are all good sources of Vitamin C.

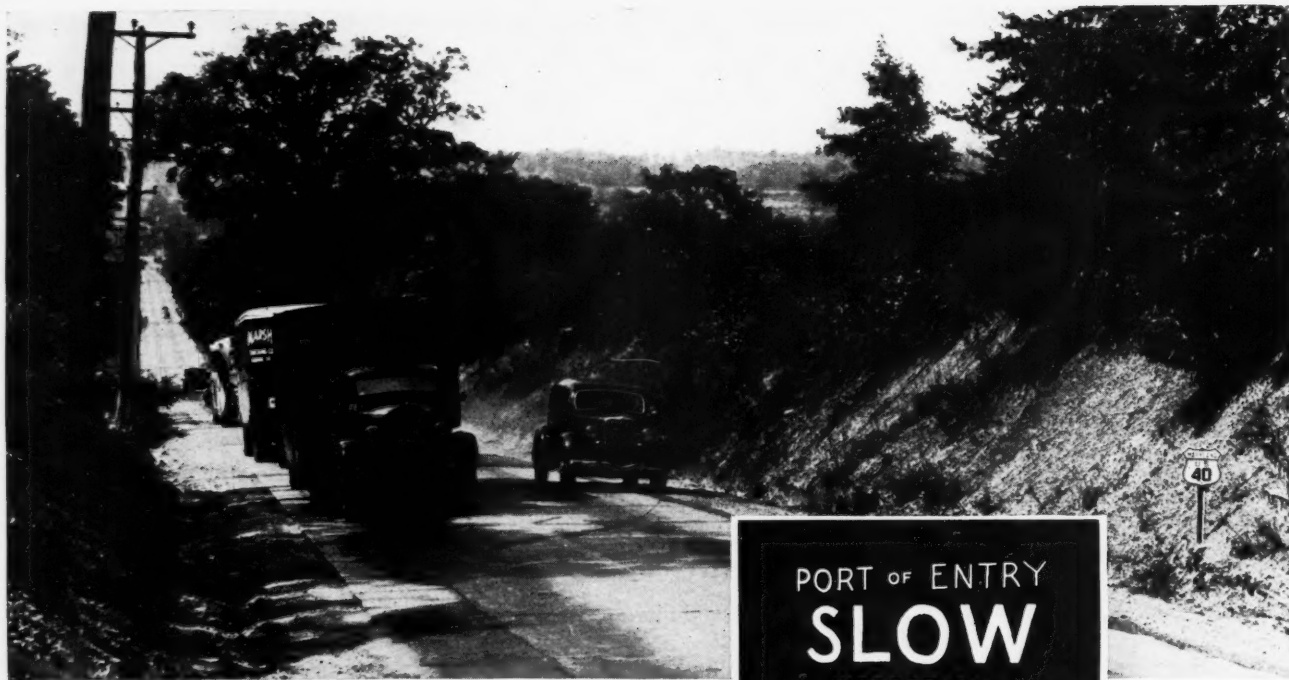
Vitamin C is the most easily destroyed of all the vitamins in cooking, canning, and storing. Addition of soda to cooking vegetables destroys it. The rule to cook fast, use little water, and serve the cooking water is a good one to follow.

Less of the vitamin will be lost when foods are stored if they are put in a cool place. The fresher the vegetables, the greater their Vitamin C content. "Frosted" or frozen vegetables should be dropped immediately into boiling water when cooked, not "thawed out" gradually.

VITAMIN D: Vitamin D is essential for babies, young children, and expectant mothers. Well-formed teeth and bones depend on a good supply of this vitamin. A prolonged deficiency of it will result in rickets.

Best food sources for Vitamin D are fish-liver oils, salmon and other oily fish, and egg yolk. Because it is not present to any great extent in ordinary diets of children, nutrition specialists recommend that, until the age of 6, children receive from one to two teaspoons of cod-liver oil or its equivalent daily to insure good teeth and bones. The amount of cod-liver oil to give depends upon its Vitamin D potency.

A good cod-liver oil states on its label that it contains not less than 85 U. S. P. (United States Pharmacopeia) units of Vitamin D per gram. Most cod-liver oils are considerably higher in potency, and many low-priced oils meet or exceed the standard. A teaspoonful of a cod-liver oil that provides 150 international or U. S. P. units per gram will cover the Vitamin D requirements for the day in infancy and childhood. If a less potent oil is used, 1½ to 2 teaspoonfuls a day may be required.



PORTS of entry establish miniature customs and immigration offices at the borders of States that enact this kind of legislation. Originally designed to prevent bootlegging of gasoline in States where gasoline taxes prevailed, they now are used to enforce highway laws on out-of-State trucks for hire.

Six Problems in Search of a Solution

*More barriers to trade in farm products from State to State, from region to region challenge consumers to join with farmers in opening the highways to more abundant consumption**



GEORGE WASHINGTON'S modern double, retracing the journey the first President made from his home in Mount Vernon to New York City for his inauguration, took 7 full days to go from the Potomac River to Manhattan Island, a distance that nowadays automobiles can traverse in 9 hours, trains cover in 3½ hours, and airplanes plus busses complete in 2 hours.

Thousands of inventions have foreshortened time and distance since 1789. Vehicles, that would have seemed fantasies of a disordered mind to George Washington's contemporaries, whisk us from one side of a vast continent to another, carry delicate perishable goods to kitchens located thousands

of miles from the gardens where they were grown, open vast markets to scattered or remote producers.

But speed sometimes generates frictions, and speed has generated frictions in the commerce between States, between regions, between one group of people and another. These are some of the "barriers to internal trade" which a special report to the Secretary of Agriculture puts under the spotlight.

Friction No. 1 has to do with differences in interterritorial freight rates in the 5 major railroad freight-rate territories of the United States: Southern, Southwestern, Western Trunkline, Eastern or Official, and Mountain Pacific. Freight rates in each of these regions are different.

Friction No. 2 is the difference between interstate and intrastate freight rates.

Friction No. 3 is the differences between the various State automobile license requirements and automobile taxes.

Friction No. 4 comes from lack of standard regulations regarding the size, weight, and the equipment of trucks in interstate commerce.

Friction No. 5 arises from port of entry legislation—laws by which States set up miniature customs-houses to examine all trucks which come into the State.

Friction No. 6 centers in taxes imposed on merchant truckers, the itinerant salesmen who are the modern equivalents of the old-time pack peddler.

Freight rate differentials are very much in the news. It's not easy to pass judgment on

**Third of a series of articles giving results of an analysis of "Barriers to Internal Trade in Farm Products," a special report recently made by the Bureau of Agricultural Economics to the Secretary of Agriculture. Earlier chapters appeared in the March 13 and March 27, 1939, issues of Consumers' Guide. A few free copies of complete report can be had by addressing Bureau of Agricultural Economics, U. S. Department of Agriculture, Washington, D. C.*

their fairness or unfairness, their soundness or unsoundness. Many factors go into the making of freight rates: varying costs of handling commodities, the value of the services rendered, the kinds of commodities that must be hauled, and so on. After allowing for such factors, when any differences in rates still remain, they deserve to be scrutinized carefully to see whether they are acting as "barriers against the free flow of commerce, hampering and restricting the normal development of the Nation . . ." Uneconomic rate differentials impose penalties on consumers as well as producers.

WHEN NATIONS want to shut out foreign products and reserve their citizens' purchasing power for their own products, they erect tariff walls. States are forbidden by the Constitution to erect tariff walls against foreign countries or against each other. But when a State sets freight rates that are lower for State-produced goods than for out-of-State-produced goods, those rates can act just like tariffs between countries.

Back in 1905 an expert testified before the Interstate Commerce Commission on how efficient these barriers can be. He said: "Today you can establish protection by means of regulation of railroad rates in an astonishing degree of efficiency, and practically all of the commissions that have been active in railway rate regulation have done that."

One city, walled up outside its most important market by just this kind of discrimination, appealed to the Interstate Commerce Commission for relief. Shreveport, Louisiana, the city involved, went to the Commission after its merchants and manufacturers were practically barred from trading in Texas as the result of freight rates established by the Texas Public Utilities Commission. In the famous Shreveport Rate Case in 1914 an Interstate Commerce Commission order setting these rates aside was upheld by the United States Supreme Court. This decision gave the Commission power to deal with

this kind of discrimination thereafter. The authority was reaffirmed by Congress in 1920.

Exercising this power the Interstate Commerce Commission in 1937 examined a number of freight rates established by Kentucky's Public Utility Commission. These rates were designed to give an advantage to Kentucky shippers over everyone else in Kentucky markets. Kentucky shippers could ship some commodities 150 miles for the same price charged out-of-State shippers for a 70-mile distance. Indiana growers who had always sold their produce in Louisville found suddenly that it was difficult to meet the prices of Kentucky growers because Kentucky growers could ship to market for so much less than they.

HEADACHES caused by freight-rate differentials come to a head more slowly and under more dignified conditions than those caused by motor-vehicle regulations.

Leo Jubb was going about his business of driving a truck with a New York license in Maine one day in June of 1933 when he was whistled over to the side of the road, taken into town, and made to pay a \$75 Maine license fee on his truck.

Trigger-quick to reply, New York arrested 2 Maine truck drivers just as unoffending as Leo Jubb, but who failed to have New York license plates. From 1931 to 1937 there were "intermittent wars" between Illinois and Wisconsin. Truck drivers caught off base—that is, in Wisconsin with Illinois tags, and vice versa—were arrested. Perishable foodstuffs loaded on the trucks frequently perished in the engagements.

In November of 1932 Pennsylvania suddenly announced it would enforce a law on its statute books which required all out-of-State trucks operating for hire in the State to take out licenses. Up and down the highways leading into Pennsylvania the word went out to truck drivers to avoid Pennsylvania. Traffic on every highway leading into Pennsylvania was jammed up tighter than a cork in a vinegar bottle. New Jersey inspectors in a lightning stroke arrested 200 Pennsylvania trucks in 2 hours. "Tons of produce," the Report on Barriers to Internal Trade says, "were threatened with destruction."

REGISTRATION and license fees and gasoline taxes basically are meant to pay toward the cost of building, maintaining, and policing highways. Where truck traffic between two States is so balanced that what one State loses in the way of wear and tear on its highways is made up by the wear and tear of its own trucks on other States' highways, there should be no problem. But States, sometimes

with justification, feel this is rarely the case.

Actually there are States so located that their highways suffer a great deal more wear and tear from out-of-State trucks than their own trucks inflict on out-of-State roads. Naturally they try to recoup the costs in taxes and fees. States which do not have this justification for levying taxes and fixing fees on out-of-State trucks are sometimes driven to it by what they feel are excessive taxes and fees on their trucks when they travel.

With 48 States and the District of Columbia fixing fees and levying taxes, a bramble of laws has grown up which not only snags traffic but which, understandably enough, sometimes pricks a temper or two.

Before the driver of a truck for hire may safely venture into a State he must first know about the insurance laws. Failure to conform with an unusual law may end up with the driver making long distance calls to his home town from a town lockup.

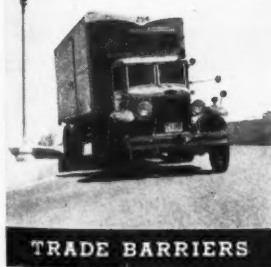
Before trucks in interstate commerce may enter some States, written applications for permission to enter the States must be made in advance. Sometimes permission to enter a State is not given by mail, but must be secured by proceeding directly to the proper authorities after crossing the State line.

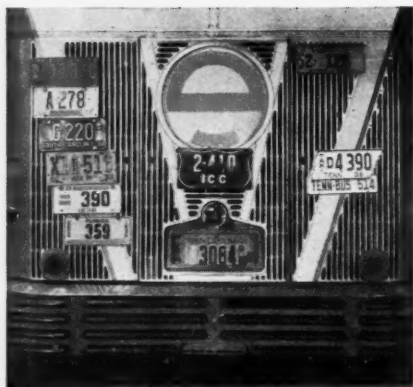
South Dakota trucks until recently could make three trips a year into North Dakota without having to take out a regular North Dakota license. To do this, however, they had to buy a \$5 identification tag. Then if they traveled over 10 miles, or if they penetrated more than 5 miles into the State, they had to get a permit from the North Dakota Board of Railroad Commissioners and arrange to pay a mileage tax.

Most liberal laws a trucker in interstate commerce faces are those in States that require no registration by out-of-State trucks, levy no special taxes on them, but which make this primrose highway contingent on reciprocal privileges for their own truckers in other States. Where such reciprocity does exist traffic is reasonably unimpeded. States with this measure of highway freedom are Massachusetts, New York, and Ohio.

Where States require out-of-State trucks to register, there is hardship on all trucks of course, but the hardest falls upon the occasional farmer and trucker who live in one State and sell their produce in one or two other States.

An out-of-State farmer who enters Wyoming in a 1-ton truck must pay an annual fee of \$7.50. If it is a 2-ton truck he is driving he must pay \$30, and if it is larger the fees increase steeply. After paying this fee he must then pay a county registration fee based on the valuation of his truck. If





LIKE visas on a passport, license plates sometimes clutter up the backboards of interstate for-hire trucks, just as this bus is plastered with plates. By passing laws which load unnecessary burdens and regulations on truck commerce, States tend to wall up trade and increase the cost of food to consumers.

he engages in "for-hire" trucking he must pay more fees and a ton-mile tax.

RED TAPE, however, is only ankle-deep by the time a trucker has registration and fee regulations straight. Before he can do business he must plunge head over heels into the complexities of the rules which fix the size and weight of trucks.

Every State in the Union has a law which fixes either a maximum or net weight limit for motor vehicles. Calculated maximum permissible weights range from 18,000 pounds, which is the legal limit in Kentucky and Tennessee, to 120,000 pounds, the legal limit in Rhode Island.

Not only are the limits different in most States but frequently the limits at State lines will be at opposite ends of the scale. Connecticut allows only 40,000 pounds while Rhode Island allows 120,000 pounds; Kentucky allows only 18,000 pounds while Illinois will accept truckloads of 72,000 pounds. Trucks may weigh 84,800 pounds in Montana but only 48,000 pounds in Wyoming.

Thus trucks which are perfectly legal in one State sometimes cannot even enter an adjoining State. And if the State with the lower limit lies across important highways, this means that the larger trucks are barred from interstate commerce.

Laws dealing with the clearance lights trucks must display are equally murky. To conform to the laws of one State truck carriers must sometimes arrange their red, blue, and green lights so that they violate the laws of other States.

Altogether these regulations not only impede commerce but sometimes hog-tie and throw it completely.

FORTUNATELY, or unfortunately, depending upon the point of view, these laws are not always enforced. Where they are not enforced the threat of their enforcement is enough to give farmers, shippers, trucking companies, and truckers the jitters.

A Texas law which limits net loads to 7,000 pounds (14,000 pounds if the trucks are headed for a Texas railroad station) is enforced. On April 1, 1938, for example, 13 truck drivers, all of them with loads of fruits and vegetables, were arrested. All of them were fined, and in addition they were required to dump fruits and vegetables weighing, in each case, from 2,500 to 3,000 pounds.

Another type of regulation, the Port of Entry laws, turns out-of-States into full-fledged foreigners who must practically pass through an immigration office to drive a truck into another State. Kansas first erected this barrier along its State line. In the beginning, the Port of Entry law was passed to prevent the bootlegging of large quantities of gasoline into Kansas. Gradually the Port of Entry limitations were broadened until today all trucks entering the State are required to secure clearance.

Inspectors require out-of-State drivers to fill out an elaborate form describing the truck, its load, and its proposed route

through the State. Then the truck is inspected to see if it meets with all of the Kansas requirements. Finally the driver must show that the truck is insured, and pay all the taxes to which he and the truck are subject.

FRICITION NO. 6 rubs on the persons engaged in selling produce from trucks.

Hogs and cattle used to be bought, assembled, and shipped to large cities by hundreds of livestock buyers, dealers, and cooperatives throughout the country. Today this business is passing over to merchant truckers who drive out into the country, buy cattle and hogs from the farmers, load them onto their trucks, and haul them down highways to stockyards in large cities.

A good part of the onion crop of Massachusetts, the peach crops of Michigan and Illinois, some of the citrus fruit harvest of Texas, go to market in trucks with merchant truckers at the wheel.

Sometimes the merchant trucker hauls his produce to market and sells it to a wholesaler, sometimes to a retailer, and sometimes directly to consumers. "He competes with and sometimes shortcuts the old, established middlemen," the Bureau of Agricultural Economics reported to the Secretary of Agriculture.

[Concluded on page 15]

TIT-FOR-TAT laws, passed by one State in retaliation for regulation of that State's trucks in another State, have sometimes resulted in costly border wars. Reciprocity between States, too, sometimes breaks down and a border war breaks out. During these interstate hostilities, produce spoils, trade is tied up, farmers and consumers are the losers.

3-STATE FIGHT OVER TRUCKS TIES UP GOODS

Tons of Perishable Produce, Some Bound for New York, Are Turned Back.

PENNSYLVANIA DEMANDS CARRIERS BUY LICENSES

Produce Spoils As New Jersey Guards Border

Railroad Interests Blamed by Highway Lines for Move To Halt Traffic

Food Supplies Tied Up in Truck War of 4 States

Jersey, Maryland, Delaware Halt Pennsylvania Carriers

GOODS TIED UP BY TRUCK WAR

Vehicles Blocked at State Line By Pennsylvania, New Jersey Dispute

CARGOES OF FOOD HELD UP

Motor Registration Dispute Causes Congestion at Bridges

7 STATES HIT BACK AT PENNSYLVANIA'S TRUCK LICENSE LAW

Reprisals Follow Edict Requiring Extra Tags for Commercial Vehicles

Interstate Truck Tag Dispute Halts Movement of Produce

Hundreds of Tons of Perishable Goods Are Held Up in Jersey by Pennsylvania's Voiding of Reciprocal Motor Laws

PRODUCE HELD UP BY TRUCK DISPUTE

Continued from Page 1

TRUCKS HELD UP AT BRIDGES FOR TAGS OF JERSEY

Shipments Are Delayed in License War on Penna.

WAR OVER TAGS TIES UP TRUCKS

Tons of Perishable Food Aboard Vehicles Turned Back at State Line

A New Deal for Young Consumers

5 million children's measurements, analyzed by the Bureau of Home Economics, provide the basis for standardizing the sizes of children's garments



JUNIOR and sister may not know it yet, but they are due to get clothes that fit them in the not too far off future. For the Bureau of Home Economics has just completed a study of children's body measurements which are based on actual living children, something which cannot be said for the basis of present children's garment sizes. These measurements, it is hoped, will serve as the basis for standardized sizes in children's garments.

Everyone has heard mothers say that their Johnny was 8 years old but he wore age 12 blouses; he was so big for his age. Mothers in this case are obliquely criticizing the kind of sizes children's clothes come in. And they have good reason.

There is very little rhyme, very little reason, and even less standardization in the sizes of children's clothes now.

Sizes which say Age 8 or Age 10 have no meaning. Age 10 at one store may be bigger or smaller than Age 10 at another store, or Age 10 in another garment in the same store.

Badly sized children's garments result in 10 million dollars' worth of returns each year, it is estimated, and this makes children's clothing cost parents more.

Where alterations must be made by parents they are a needless nuisance. Where they are made by the stores they are a needless expense, add further to clothing costs. Well-fitted clothes make children happier. Badly fitted clothes embarrass children and are likely to be discarded sooner than the well-fitted variety.

Finally the unpredictable sizes that children's clothes come in make it necessary for parents to drag children along to the store every time a purchase is made. If sizes were standardized mothers could buy on the basis of known measurements.

Everybody then, junior, sister, father, mother, the stores, the manufacturers, and the pattern makers, all have been dissatisfied with the sizes children's clothes come in.

But no one could do anything about this situation because there were no measurements of children which could be used as the basis of a set of standard garment sizes.

IN THIS PREDICAMENT the Bureau of Home Economics of the Department of Agriculture, with the assistance of the NYA and the WPA, came to the rescue. Funds were supplied by the WPA and the NYA furnished workers in some of the States.

Armed with instruments that had been carefully calibrated, a small army of specially trained field workers set out, under the direction of the BHE, to track down American children and to get them to stand still long enough to submit to 36 critical measurements. Altogether 5 million measurements of 145,000 children in schools, playgrounds, clubs, and anywhere else children are likely to be found, were taken. The children ranged from 4 to 17 years in age.

Bureau of Home Economics statisticians then worked over these 5 million measurements and reduced them to simple tables.

Analysis revealed that age is the worst possible guide to go by in buying children's clothes. The most accurate way of getting at the problem of children's sizes, it was discovered, is through the use of any one of three sets of measurements: height and girth of hips, height and girth of chest, or height and weight.

Of the three sets of measurements the combination of height and girth of hips seems to be easiest to work with. These key measurements tell clothing experts how tall a child is and how thick he is. From them they can predict all the other necessary garment measurements.

Around the basic body measurements the BHE has taken of American children, the American Standards Association will coordinate efforts to set up a basic set of standard body sizes for use in sizing children's garments.



THIS child received a certificate with the Department of Agriculture seal on it to show that she had served as a typical American girl in the monumental study the Bureau of Home Economics made of the measurements of American children. These measurements will serve as the basis for accurate standardized sizes for children's garments.

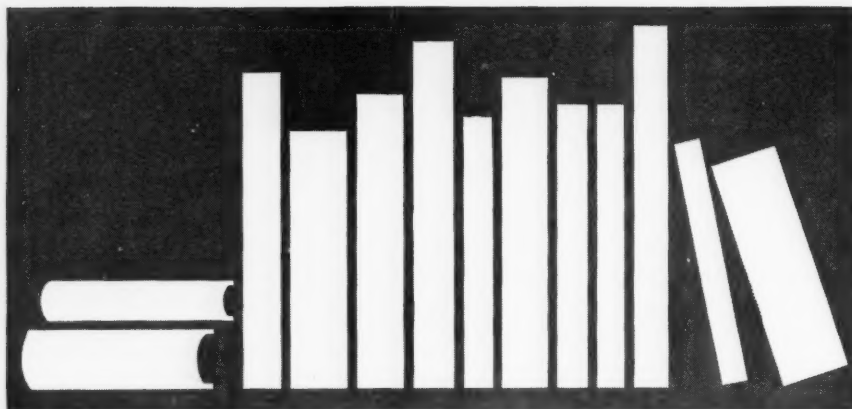
To push this work along, recently the American Standards Association called a meeting in New York City where plans were laid to develop an "American Standard System of Sizes for Children's Garments and Patterns." At the meeting there were present representatives of pattern manufacturers, garment makers, retailers, consumers, and technical experts from Government and private industry.

The first job ahead of this committee is to select a set of physical measurements to use as the basis of standard sizes. After this is done the American Standards Association will undertake the job of winning support from all interests concerned for the new standard body measurements.

Once this basic problem is solved, then manufacturers and pattern makers will be in a position to adopt an "American Standard System of Sizes for Children's Garments and Patterns." They will be Junior's assurance that his clothes actually fit his measurements.

The American Standards Association is a federation of many organizations interested in standards. Its membership includes industrial organizations, trade bodies, Government agencies, and consumer organizations.

Rank and file consumers, who have been paying the price of unsatisfactory children's garment sizes in higher prices and irritation, should watch the development of children's garment size standards with particular interest.



CONSUMERS' BOOKSHELF

HOSIERY FOR WOMEN. A Buying Guide, by Margaret Smith, Textiles and Clothing Division, Bureau of Home Economics. 1939, pp. 24. Address: Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D. C. 10 cents. Profusely illustrated, graphic description of the 10 points consumers should watch in selecting stockings if they want to get the best value for their money. Useful both for home reading and classroom study.

SCIENTIFIC CONSUMER PURCHASING, by Alice L. Edwards. Social Studies Series. 1939, pp. 81. Address: American Association of University Women, 1634 Eye Street, NW., Washington, D. C. 60 cents for study guide pamphlet. \$1.25 for pamphlet plus a kit of supplementary study materials bearing on problems mentioned in the guide. This study guide for consumer groups considers the position of the consumer buyer in our present-day economy; analyses present sources of consumer-buying information; and suggests plans for study of such commodities as hosiery, sheets and blankets, bedding and upholstery, refrigerators, and canned fruits and vegetables.

PROCEEDINGS OF THE NATIONAL HEALTH CONFERENCE, JULY 1938, by U. S. Interdepartmental Committee to Coordinate Health and Welfare Activities. 1938, pp. 163. Address: Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D. C. 35 cents. A general discussion of national health needs, explaining the necessity for the expansion of public health services, hospital facilities and medical care for the needy; and a general program of insurance against loss of wages during illness.

THE NATION'S HEALTH, by U. S. Interdepartmental Committee to Coordinate Health and Welfare Activities. 1939, pp. 116. Address: Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D. C. 20 cents. Explains the background for the meeting of the National Health Conference, held to consider proposals for a 10-year program in the fields of health and medical care for the country as a whole. These proposals are discussed in detail in the pamphlet listed above, "Proceedings of the National Health Conference."

TOWARD BETTER NATIONAL HEALTH, by U. S. Interdepartmental Committee to Coordinate Health and Welfare Activities. 1939, pp. 30, illus. Address: Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D. C. 10 cents. Gives a brief, popular summary of the report of the Technical Committee on Medical Care recommending the participation of the Federal Government in the health services of the nation, as discussed in the pamphlet, "Proceedings of the National Health Conference."

CONSUMERS' COOPERATION IN THE UNITED STATES, 1936, by Florence E. Parker. Bulletin No. 659 of U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics. 1939, pp. 207, illus. Address: Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D. C. 25 cents. Contains information on the policies, resources, and activities of consumer cooperative enterprises, such as retail distributive, local service, telephone, and insurance associations; credit unions and district federations. Additional chapters consider the educational and recreational aspects of the cooperative movement, cooperative associations as employers, and the legal status of cooperatives.

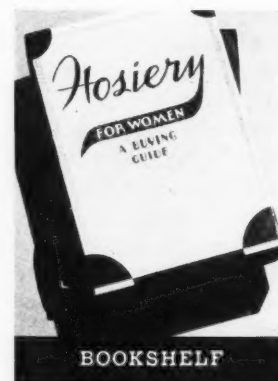
ANNUAL REPORT OF THE CONSUMERS' COUNSEL OF THE NATIONAL BITUMINOUS COAL COMMISSION FOR THE FISCAL YEAR 1938. 1938, pp. 14. Address: Consumers' Counsel, National Bituminous Coal Commission, Washington, D. C. Free. A discussion of the policies, activities, and achievements of the Consumers' Counsel for 1938.

CREDIT FOR CONSUMERS, by LeBaron R. Foster. Public Affairs Pamphlet No. 5. Revised 1938, pp. 32, illus. Address: Public Affairs Committee, 8 West Fortieth Street, New York, N. Y. 10 cents. Treats of the various kinds of consumer credit, how to use credit to advantage, why consumer credit is expensive, and a program for the control of credit practices for consumer protection.

BLANKETS, SHEETS, AND TOWELS FOR THE HOME, by K. P. Hess. Bulletin 281. 1938, pp. 31, illus. Address: Extension Service, Kansas State College, Manhattan, Kans. Free to residents of Kansas; one copy free to nonresidents, extra copies 5 cents each. Considers buying pointers and suggestions for care of blankets, sheets, and bath towels.

INDUSTRIAL PRICE POLICIES, by Maxwell S. Stewart. Public Affairs Pamphlet No. 23. 1938, pp. 33, illus. Address: Public Affairs Committee, Inc., 8 West 40th St., New York, N. Y. 10 cents. A report giving information on the price policies of typical industrial organizations with attention directed particularly to the economic and social effects of such practices.

FARMER CO-OPS IN VIRGINIA, by R. C. Dorsey. 1939, pp. 20, illus. Address: Farm Credit Administration, Washington, D. C. Free. Presents discussions and statistical information on various types of farm marketing cooperatives in Virginia.



HABERDASHERS TO THE NEEDY

[Concluded from page 5]

Overalls have been manufactured which compare favorably with commercially manufactured overalls.

Little girls' dresses have been made which are far better in quality than those which relief families could buy if the same amount of money expended by the local communities had been spent on similar garments.

In some of the Western regions sheepskin coats have been made. When the drought made necessary the purchase by the Federal Government of thousands of drought-stricken cattle, many hides were tanned and made into leather coats on the sewing projects.

Salvaged clothes from the Civilian Conservation Corps have been cleaned, renovated, and turned over to the sewing projects to be cut down into garments for school children.

Cotton purchased by the Federal Surplus Commodities Corporation as part of the program to bring relief to cotton farmers was turned over to the sewing projects and made into mattresses for use in publicly owned hospitals and institutions, and sometimes to the families on relief.

Blankets and comforts have been made on the sewing projects and distributed to people on relief.

THIS IS THE WAY it works: A city government, a State government or any public agency applies to the Works Progress Administration and offers to sponsor a WPA sewing project. It undertakes to provide a place for the operation of the project, to pay for utilities, to supply equipment, and to pay for all or part of the cost of the materials used. Sometimes the sponsoring agency also agrees to pay for part of the supervisory personnel. WPA, in exchange, supplies labor from relief rolls, organizes the project, and puts it to work making clothes.

Production by a project, once it is set up, is determined by the needs of the city. Families on relief tell their case workers what clothes they need. School teachers report that certain children are out of school because they do not have clothes. An institution certifies that it is unable to purchase or make sheets. A hospital certifies that its funds cannot purchase enough surgical dressings. Case workers request overalls for the men in families on relief. All these orders are filed at the project headquarters and work begins immediately to fill them.

When clothes are ready families on relief are given orders which they take to a relief warehouse. There the order is filled, and

the next day a child who has been absent from school because he had no clothes is back at his desk, or a husband dresses in a new suit and begins a renewed search for a job.

Why cities and States sponsor these projects is plain enough. First, out of simple humanity, to obtain clothes for people who need them. Wages paid to the women in sewing rooms add to the community's purchasing power. These women are taken off city or county welfare rolls and this lightens the relief burden of the community. Finally, industry benefits because the sewing projects make a market for textiles that would otherwise not exist. If clothes were not available through the WPA to the families on relief, they wouldn't get clothes at all. Cotton would pile up in warehouses, while people holed up in their homes because they had no clothes to wear.

CLOTHING PROJECTS range in size from the very largest in New York City which employed an average of 3,851 persons from July to November, 1938, and produced 2½ million garments, to projects which employ 10 persons (the minimum permitted) and which produced last year about 25 garments a day.

Take a city that isn't necessarily typical but which happens to be close at hand and to have all its statistics compiled—Washington, D. C.

Just above Pennsylvania Avenue in Washington there is a neighborhood of warehouses, old stores, slum dwellings, and abandoned churches which will eventually be leveled off to provide space for a new municipal center. The land has been purchased by the city, the buildings have been condemned, and money has been appropriated for the new buildings.

When the depression hit Washington it found this city, like most others, completely unprepared for what was to come. There were no agencies for the administration of public assistance to the unemployed, and no facilities to house them after they were created. Slowly these agencies came into existence. Personnel was employed. In the emergency, warehouses were put to use as homes for the transient unemployed, old buildings were transformed into offices. The emergency relief agency was housed in an abandoned church.

It is in this church, a red brick building, sheltered by hundred-year-old elm trees, that the headquarters of the sewing project in Washington are set up.

As you enter the church for a moment you are unaware that it is not a church. The pews seem to be filled, and the transept seems to

be murmuring with what might be prayers.

Suddenly you realize that these are illusions, that the pews have been removed, and that what you take for worshippers are women pedaling at sewing machines which form geometrically straight rows right up to the pulpit platform. In front of the pulpit platform there is a long table where the cutters work. On the pulpit platform there are men tailors sitting at a board table making men's clothes. In one office off the pulpit there is a first-aid room; in the other the project supervisor maintains her office. In the balconies are more sewing machines.

The sound you heard when you entered is the whir of sewing machines. Each woman at each table is wearing a neat white apron made on the project. This not only insures that the clothes made are kept clean but also saves wear and tear on the project workers' clothes.

As you walk through the church you notice that one group is working on overalls. Another section of the room is working on dresses; a third is sewing up boys' blouses. In one corner there is a cluster of women who are at work on a variety of garments and materials. They are on private, not project jobs. Some families in the city unable to find a seamstress to do their sewing have sent sewing to the project to be done. To develop the skill of the workers the project permits the women to work on these private jobs on their own time. When work comes in, a woman is assigned to the work and she is taken off the project pay roll. She is paid for the work by the private family. When the work is finished she goes back to the project.

MOST OF THESE WOMEN, it is explained, have learned to sew on the project. One woman graduated into a shop of her own. Another discovered that she had a positive talent as a clothing cutter and designer and she has gone to work in private industry.

In Washington there was an average of 1,050 women employed on the sewing projects during 1938. Altogether they made 181 thousand garments.

For these garments the city contributed \$75,000 for materials, and to this the Federal Government added about \$5,000 for the purchase of other essential materials.

But statistics don't describe WPA sewing projects. Behind each little digit is a human being whose industry—made possible by public funds—is turning out clothes for the needy, utilizing surplus products from the farms, and earning for his or her own family a wage that keeps it going.



JUNE 25, 1938—the day President Roosevelt signed a new Federal Food, Drug and Cosmetic Act setting up new controls over the sale of substandard and dangerous products moving over State lines—marked the beginning of a demand for more house cleaning. Not all these products cross State lines in their march to consumers' kitchens, medicine cabinets, and dressing tables. Many are produced and sold within the same State and control over them lies not in Federal, but in State, law.

Every State has its own Food and Drug law. Few match the new Federal law. In some States, controls exceed the Federal law in stringency; in others, the State laws are less protective of consumer interests.

With a new Federal law as a pattern and a standard toward which to lift laggard laws, trade as well as consumers in the States have been busy in the past year bringing greater uniformity into food and drug legislation. Practically all the State legislatures are now ready to adjourn or are adjourned; it is possible therefore to sum up what has happened.

Five States have passed new Food, Drug and Cosmetic Laws, or brought old laws more or less up-to-date by amendment. The States were Arkansas, Indiana, Nevada, North Carolina and Wyoming.

Wyoming's law applies only to cosmetics. The other laws and amendments apply to all three types of commodities—foods, drugs, and cosmetics.

Intentions don't always grow up to be achievements, but the statement of intentions in the Indiana law sums up what people in that State hope to achieve through their Food and Drug law.

"This Act is intended," the law reads, "to enact State legislation which

"(a) safeguards the public health and promotes the public welfare by protecting the consuming public from injury by product use and the purchasing public injury from merchandising deceit, flowing from intrastate commerce in foods, drugs, and cosmetics, and

"(b) is uniform with . . . the Federal Food, Drug and Cosmetic Act and the Federal Trade Commission Act, and

"(c) thus promotes conformity with such laws and their administration throughout the United States."

All 4 States adopt as their own the standards and regulations promulgated under the Federal Food, Drug and Cosmetic Act.

Unanimously, too, the 4 States all adopt the same enforcement procedure, a tagging device. Under it a State inspector may put a tag on any food, drug, or cosmetic which he suspects of violating the law. The tag, in effect, quarantines the product. After a tag is affixed to a product it may not be moved or sold until its fate has been determined in court.

Under Federal law, there are no tags. Instead the Federal Food and Drug inspector requests a United States Attorney to take steps to stop a suspected article. Steps, of course, involve going to court.

Nevada, North Carolina, and Indiana give their Food and Drug agencies, in addition, a power which Congress gave to the Federal Trade Commission: control over false advertising.

Consumers in these 4 States, to mention some of the new guarantees they have when they buy foods, drugs, or cosmetics, now are protected against dangerous coal tar dyes. By adopting the provisions of the Federal law they require foods, drugs and cosmetics in their States to use only Federally certified coal tar dyes. They protect themselves against the possible introduction of dangerous new drugs by adopting the Federal provision which requires approval of new drugs before they are sold. Finally consumers in these States will profit from the promulgation of the standards of identity and quality under the Federal law. As these standards take effect Federally, under the laws of these 4 States, they will also take hold on intrastate products.

To find out what kind of State food and drug laws they have, consumers may write to

the clerk of their State legislature in their State capital for a copy of the statute. For copies of the Federal Food, Drug and Cosmetic Act, they may write to the Food and Drug Administration, Department of Agriculture, Washington, D. C.

RESEARCHING at home on a private consumer project, a consumer recently examined all the cans in her pantry just to find out for herself how confusing can sizes are. In the middle of her research she came across 2 different brands of canned tomatoes. Taking one she looked at the label and found that it said the contents weighed one pound 3 ounces. Looking at the second can, her first impression was that it was larger than the first can. She got out a ruler and measured the cans, top to bottom, edge to edge. They were both the same size.

She took them to her husband and asked him which was the larger. He picked the one she did.

Debating between them why it was that their eyes deceived them, they learned what was up. It was the color scheme of the label. One label, the one on the larger-appearing can, was half red, half white. The other label was solid brown. Evidently color schemes on labels can create optical illusions about size.

The thing to do, they reasoned, is to be a skeptic; read the labels carefully, particularly the net weight legends; don't guess from the appearance of a label that one can is larger than another.

WHAT HAPPENS, a curious consumer has asked the *Consumers' Guide*, if a dealer disobeys a Federal Trade Commission "Cease and Desist Order?"

Answering this question requires an examination of the "Cease and Desist Order" itself. When the Federal Trade Commission believes the FTC Act, or its amendments, are being violated it cites the alleged violator. Hearings are held, to which the person charged with the violation may present evidence, and then if the original suspicion is borne out, a "Cease and Desist Order" is issued.

The "Cease and Desist Order" does not have the force of law for 60 days after it is issued. During the 60-day period the person against whom the order has been issued may challenge it in a Federal Circuit Court of Appeals. If he does not challenge the order during the 60 days it then has the force of law. Or if he does challenge it and the FTC is upheld, the order again has the force of law. Of course, a cited dealer may win his case, and in that event the order is invalid.

Violators of the "Cease and Desist Order," after it takes effect, are punished, with one exception, in the Civil Courts. Persons who violate the orders may be sued in Civil Court by the FTC for \$5,000 for each violation.

The one exception applies to persons who, with the intent to defraud and mislead, advertise products which may be injurious to health. They are subject to criminal prosecutions leading to a \$5,000 fine and 6 months in jail for a first offense, and to \$10,000 fines for offenses after the first.

Recently in Chicago a drug manufacturer was haled into court under both these provisions of the FTC act. He is now being sued in a Civil Court for \$30,000 by the FTC, \$5,000 for each of 6 violations of a "Cease and Desist Order" and in addition, he is defendant in a criminal action which charges him with advertising, with the intent to defraud and mislead, a product which may be injurious to health.

VITAMIN FANCIES AND FACTS

[Concluded from page 7]

of getting a letter attached to its name. Deficiency of nicotinic acid results in pellagra. Loss of appetite, loss of weight, and general weakness are the early symptoms. In its worst stages the disease results in sore mouth, digestive and nervous disturbances, and skin eruptions.

In the past few months scientists have succeeded in producing nicotinic acid in the laboratory at an almost negligible cost. Hailed as one of the foremost scientific advances in recent years, the discovery promises to be a major weapon in the fight against pellagra in regions of the country where the disease is prevalent.

Best food sources of nicotinic acid are lean meat, chicken, liver, leafy, green vegetables and green or dried peas and beans. Nicotinic acid dissolves readily in water.

IN GENERAL: Generally the family whose daily diet includes plenty of fresh, green vegetables, fruits, cuts of meats, animal organs, milk, butter, cheese, eggs, whole grain cereal products, and legumes should not have any vitamin troubles. Special vitamin concentrates have to be resorted to only when your doctor says so, and when there are babies and young children in the family who need Vitamin D.

As important as proper choice of diet are proper cooking methods. Thiamin, ascorbic acid, riboflavin, and nicotinic acid all dissolve readily in water. To get the most out of foods rich in these vitamins, cook them in

the smallest amount of water possible, and then serve the liquid in the form of a sauce, gravy or soup. Foods rich in thiamin and ascorbic acid (easily destroyed by cooking) should be cooked as quickly as possible; in no case should soda be added to vegetables well supplied with these vitamins, or, for that matter, to any vegetables.

Tens of thousands of American families, well able to afford proper diets, suffer from lack of certain vitamins, even though they are only "borderline cases." Unwise selection of the daily menu is the major cause. All consumers, whether with bulging purses or with thin ones, should as far as possible plan their diets with an eye to health value as well as appetite appeal.

SIX PROBLEMS IN SEARCH OF A SOLUTION

[Concluded from page 16]

Middlemen, however, like other men for that matter, do not go down without fighting.

Going into battle they have asked for and obtained restrictive legislation against merchant truckers which have struck alike at merchant truckers and farmers who sell their own produce. Today the statutes are full of State, city, and county regulations and are driving some merchant truckers out of business, and raising the costs of doing business to others. And consumers are footing the bills.

In many States merchant truckers must take out licenses and post bonds. Nebraska requires of merchant truckers a license fee of \$25 plus a tax of \$10. In Montana the price of this license shoots up to \$100 with the additional requirement that each merchant trucker must post a bond of at least \$1,000.

Piling tax on tax, some States require merchant truckers to take out licenses in each county they do business in.

Cities also sometimes jump on the merchant trucker with both feet. Denver, Omaha, Pittsburgh, Mobile, Baltimore, Cleveland, and St. Louis insist on the payment of a tax of \$200 before they permit peddlers to do business.

Usually local growers are exempted from the payment of these fees, but sometimes the laws are framed so that farmers must sell their own produce to claim tax and license exemptions. Sometimes farmers who want to market their own produce, but who do not raise enough produce to haul a full load to town at any one time, must either come to market with an uneconomic half-load or give up selling their own produce in the city altogether.

People, singly and in delegations, have complained about the laws, but still very little in the way of a general solution has been turned up.

Reciprocity might help, people say. But reciprocity between States has a way of breaking down suddenly and causing more trouble. Besides reciprocity solves the problems of licenses but not the problems arising from regulations regarding sizes and weights. National organizations have drafted uniform State laws and have solicited support for their enactment. But, the report notes, "the national organizations' influence in securing uniformity has not been striking."

Finally people have bethought themselves of the Federal Government. "Why not a Federal law?" they ask. There is a Federal law, the Motor Carrier Act of 1935. One thing this Federal law has done has been to introduce order into the regulations regarding lights, brakes, flares, and the equipment on trucks for hire in interstate commerce.

This law does not prevent the States from setting up additional standards. Under it, however, some States have been induced to bring their requirements into line with the Federal requirements.

Defects in the present Federal law do not deter the advocates of Federal action. One legislative action can correct these flaws, they say, and might also bring about peace and order in the chaos of present motor regulations.

The law these persons propose would provide for only 2 registrations of trucks which engage in interstate commerce: registration in the home State, and registration with the Interstate Commerce Commission. Then once a truck conformed to the regulations of its home State and to those of the Federal Government it would be free to go anywhere in the country without any further interference.

A FAMOUS PLAYWRIGHT once wrote a play about six characters in search of an author. Here are six transportation problems in search of a solution. "We'll cause trouble," they say, "if you don't take care of us." "We'll add costs to the price of food." "We'll create situations in which food will be dumped along the side of highways." "We'll let foods deteriorate on farms, we'll let people go hungry in cities."

The solution of these six problems, like the author for the six characters, probably will come from the audience—an audience made up of consumers and producers.

Six problems, you might say, are looking for people who want to go forward together toward a better nourished America.

IN THIS ISSUE

MAY 1, 1939 ● VOLUME VI, NUMBER 2

| | |
|--|----|
| Haberdashers to the Needy | 3 |
| A Message to Consumers | 5 |
| Vitamin Fancies and Facts | 6 |
| Six Problems in Search of a Solution | 8 |
| A New Deal for Young Consumers | 11 |
| Consumers' Bookshelf | 12 |
| On the Consumer Front | 14 |

3

5

6

8

11

12

14

147000